

SCIENCE.

FRIDAY, JUNE 4, 1886.

COMMENT AND CRITICISM.

IN A RECENT NUMBER of the *Revue internationale de l'enseignement*, M. Breal, who has written before on educational topics, has an essay on the methods of acquiring foreign languages. Among some old considerations of value, he adds the less well-known remark, that, when a person goes to a foreign country to 'learn the language,' he rarely succeeds. But if he goes to pursue some definite profession or business, — M. Breal suggests banking at Frankfort, the book-trade at Leipzig, and brewing at Munich, among others, — then he acquires the language very rapidly as well as very thoroughly. The reason for this is plain enough: it is the substitution of natural for scholastic methods. And nature, being the better teacher, comes out ahead. In the former case, dictionaries and grammars figure largely; while, in following M. Breal's suggestions, the phrases of ordinary conversation, as well as the terminology of some particular calling, become part of the student's daily experience from the first. The hint is a valuable one, and it might save time and money, to say nothing of a discouraged spirit, to the numerous young men and women who go to Germany, France, and Italy each year to 'learn the language.'

IN THE DEATH, on May 16, of the aged German historian, the world has lost a scholar who has done as much as, if not more than, any one else for the extension of scientific method, and for the application to history of those rules and tests which mark the nineteenth century as pre-eminently the era of science. Born in 1795, when the reign of terror was hardly passed, and when the metaphysical notions as to the theory of the state and the rights of man which had been formulated by Bodin, Grotius, Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Rousseau, were finding their logical outcome in anarchy, Ranke grew up in a period of transition. The wave of constitutionalism was gathering a force to which even the reaction from the revolutionary excesses of the commune, aided by the holy alliance, could be but a temporary check.

No. 174.—1886.

With a genius that detected the chain of causation amid a complicated mass of detail, with an exactness and an accuracy that made even the smallest event of importance, and with a power of lucid, graphic statement which attracted and interested while it instructed, Ranke was born a scientific historian. He appreciated to the full the meaning of the contemporary development, but with true historical instinct he turned to the elucidation of that previous period of transition from feudalism to absolutism which is the key to the history of western Europe in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. In this field he was the acknowledged master. In addition to his own magnificent labors, we owe to Von Ranke the *seminarium*, that peculiarly scientific department of university work. And it is from him that Waitz, Giesebricht, Von Sybel, George Bancroft, and a host of lesser historians have drawn their inspirations.

FABRY'S AND BARNARD'S COMETS, the two that have been with us since last December, have now disappeared from view in the northern hemisphere. Very few astronomers appear to have seen these comets under the most favorable circumstances. Mr. T. W. Backhouse, however, reports that on April 26 he followed the tail of Fabry's comet to a distance of thirty-eight degrees; and Barnard's comet he found on May 1 had two tails, the principal one four and a half degrees in length. To replace these comets we have three new ones discovered by Mr. Brooks, on April 27 and 30, and May 22, respectively. They are all fairly bright for what are called 'telescopic' comets. The calculated elements show that the first reaches its nearest point to the sun on June 6, and is increasing slightly in brightness: the second comet is decreasing in brightness, having passed its perihelion on May 4.

HEALTH OF NEW YORK DURING APRIL.

THE total population of New York on April 1 was estimated at 1,428,898, and is believed to be increasing at the weekly rate of 799.

The total number of deaths from all causes was 2,965, or about 99 each day. Comparing this with

the same number of days in March, there was a reduction representing the saving of 290 lives, and this not taking into account an increase in the population of more than 3,000 souls.

In March the largest number of persons succumbed to disease on the 31st, there being on that day 137 deaths recorded; on the 30th of April the maximum limit was reached, amounting to but 124 deaths.

The deaths of children under five years of age during March were 1,231, and in April but 1,075; and yet diarrhoeal diseases carried off in April 56 persons, and only 32 in the preceding month. Scarlet-fever caused a mortality of 49 this month, as compared with 43 in March. The lines in the chart representing scarlet-fever and the diarrhoeal diseases, which for two months have nearly coincided, now begin to diverge, and the separation will be more and more marked as the season advances. The increase of deaths from diarrhoeal diseases appears to be pretty evenly distributed throughout the month, and not very perceptibly increased in any one period over another. The largest number of deaths from diseases of this nature in any one day was 5, on the 22d. The week in which this occurred was characterized by high temperatures, 81°, 74°, 74°, 81°, 84°, and 83° being the maxima for six consecutive days beginning with the 19th; and during this period there were 16 deaths from this class. The next largest number of deaths was 4, on the 11th inst.; and on six consecutive days of that week the maxima reached by the thermometer were respectively 70°, 52°, 64°, 68°, 69°, and 67°, and the recorded deaths were 14.

This is an interesting comparison, and would seem to show that there are other influences at work in the causation of diarrhoeal diseases than an elevation of temperature at one part of the day. On these days, when the thermometer was ranging from 74° to 84° in the afternoon, it was at other parts of the day much lower, sometimes as low as 48°. It is the high temperature continued throughout the greater part of the twenty-four hours, and repeated day after day, as occurs in July and August, which produces such fearful ravages among the inhabitants of the large cities. Especially is this destructive influence marked when the air is laden with moisture. A study of the accompanying chart will show, that, at the time when these high temperatures occurred, the air was comparatively dry; on the 23d inst., when the maximum temperature was 84°, the humidity was but 60, saturation being 100. That this is an important element in the problem is not to be overlooked. It is a matter of common experience that a temperature of 90° with a dry atmosphere

can be more comfortably borne than one of 80° with the air saturated with moisture. In the one case evaporation from the body is rapid, resulting in a cooling of the surface; in the other it is impeded, or seriously interfered with.

Consumption and diphtheria show for April, as compared with March, a slight decrease in mortality.

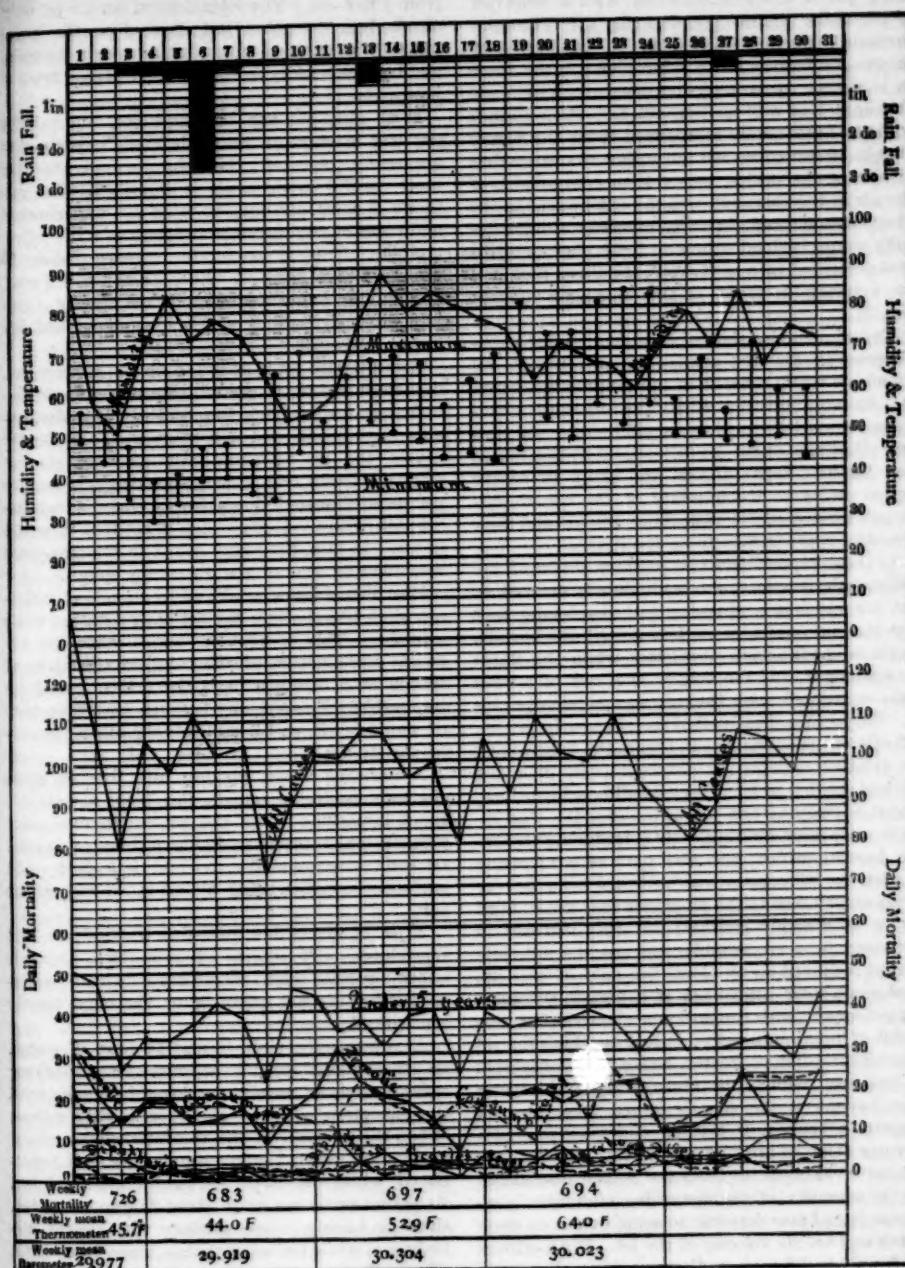
The mean temperature for the month was 52.87°, that for March having been 37.60°. The maximum was on the twenty-third day, the thermometer then registering 84°. This is the highest recorded in the month of April since 1871. 62° was the highest point reached by the mercury during March: its lowest point in that month was 8°, while during April at no time was it more than two degrees below freezing.

While the number of days upon which rain fell was but seven, rather less than the average for a considerable number of years, yet the total amount of water which fell was 3.85 inches, considerably above the average amount for the same period. On the 4th of the month one-quarter of an inch of snow fell, and three-quarters of an inch on the day following. In the corresponding month of 1885, there were several flurries of snow, the amount being too small to accurately measure. Snow is not a frequent visitor in the month of April: in the year 1870 it fell to the depth of two inches and a half; in 1875 no less than thirteen inches and a half are recorded; and in the years 1882 and 1883 there was in each one half-inch. With these exceptions, no snow has fallen in April during the past fifteen years. From a meteorological point of view, April, 1886, was an exceptional month.

SYMPATHETIC VIBRATIONS OF JETS.¹

AFTER a brief historical notice of the observations of Savart, Masson, Sondhauss, Kundt, Laconte, Barret and Tyndall, Decharme, and Neyreneuf, on the sympathetic vibrations of jets and flames, the author described his own experiments. Attention was directed to the subject by the accidental observation that a pulsating air-jet directed against a flame caused the latter to emit a musical sound. The pitch of this sound depended solely on the rapidity of the jet-pulsations, but its intensity was found to increase in a remarkable way with the distance of the flame from the orifice. In order to study the phenomenon, air was allowed to escape against the flame from a small orifice in the diaphragm of an ordinary telephone, the chamber behind the diaphragm

¹ Abstract of paper read before the Royal Society, April 28, by Chichester A. Bell.



being placed in communication with a reservoir of air under gentle pressure (fig. 1). Vibratory motions being then excited in the diaphragm, by means of a battery and a microphone or rheotome in a distant apartment, the discovery was made that speech as well as musical and other sounds could be quite loudly reproduced from the flame. Certain observations led the author to suspect that motion of the orifice, rather than compression of the air in the chamber, was the chief agent in the phenomenon; and, in fact, precisely similar results were obtained when a light glass jet-tube was cemented to a soft iron armature, mounted on a spring in front of the telephone magnet (fig. 2).

Experiment also showed that an air-jet at suitable pressure directed against a flame repeats all sounds or words uttered in the neighborhood (fig. 3). Except, however, where the impressed vibrations do not differ widely in pitch from the normal vibrations of the jet (discovered by Sondhauss and Masson), these effects are likely to escape notice owing to the inability of the ear to distinguish between the disturbing sounds and their echo-like reproduction from the flame.

In these experiments the primary action of the impressed vibrations was undoubtedly exerted on the air-jet; but a singular and perplexing fact was that no sound, or at best very faint sounds, could be heard from the latter when the flame was removed, and the ear, or the end of a wide tube connected with the ear, was substituted for it. Suspecting, finally, that the changes in the jet, effective in producing sound from the flame, must be relative changes of different parts of it, the author was led to try a very small hearing-orifice, about as large as the jet-orifice (fig. 4). The results were most striking. By introducing this little hearing-orifice into the path of a vibrating air-jet, the vibrations can be heard over a very wide area. Close to the jet-orifice they are so faint as to be scarcely audible; but they increase in intensity in a remarkable way as the hearing-orifice is moved away along the axis of the jet, and reach their maximum at a certain distance. Experiments with smoked air showed that this point of maximum sound is that at which the jet loses its rod-like character, and expands rapidly: it has been named the 'breaking-point,' because just beyond it the sounds heard from the jet acquire a broken or rattling character, and at a greater distance are completely lost. The distance of the breaking-point from the orifice diminishes as the intensity of the disturbing vibrations is increased, and also depends to some extent on their pitch and on the velocity of the jet. With orifices of from 1 to 1.5 mm. in diameter, it usually varies

from 1 to 6 cm. The vibrations of an air-jet may also be heard at points not situated on the axis; but they are always most intense along the axis, and become rapidly fainter as the distance from it increases.

With glass jet and hearing-tubes, and a light gas bag to serve as reservoir, these experiments are easily repeated; but simple apparatus for more careful experiments is described. The author's general conclusions from his experiments and those of others are as follows:—

A jet of air at moderate pressure (below 10 mm. of water) from an orifice from 1 to 1.5 mm. in diameter, forms a continuous column for a certain distance, beyond which it expands and becomes confused.

Any impulse, such as a tap on the jet support, or a short and sharp sound, causes a minute disturbance to start from the orifice. This disturbance increases in area as it progresses, and finally causes the jet to break. By directing the jet against a flame or a hearing-orifice, it is readily perceived that such disturbances travel along the jet-path with a velocity which is not that of sound in air. In fact, the sound heard in the ear-piece resembles an echo of the disturbing sound.

The disturbances produced by sounds of different pitch travel along the jet-path with the same velocity. This is evident, since otherwise accurate reproduction of the complex vibrations of speech at a distance from the orifice would be impossible. This velocity is much less than that of sound in air, and is probably the mean velocity of the stream.

A vibrating air-jet playing into free air gives rise to very feeble sounds, but these sounds are much intensified when the jet impinges on any obstacle which serves to divide it into two parts. Of such arrangements, the best is a perforated surface, the orifice being placed in the axis of the jet.

A jet of air at low pressure responds to and reproduces only sounds of low pitch. Sounds above a certain pitch, which depends on the pressure, either do not affect it or are only faintly reproduced.

At pressures between 10 and 12 mm. of water, an air-jet reproduces all the tones of the speaking voice, and those usually employed in music, with the exception of very shrill or hissing noises. When the pressure in the reservoir equals about 18 mm. of water, hissing sounds are well reproduced, while sounds of low pitch become fainter. At higher pressures, up to about 25 mm. of water, shrill or hissing noises produce very violent disturbance, while ordinary speech tones have little effect. But at these pressures sounds of high

pitch frequently cause the jet to emit lower sounds of which they are harmonics.

In general a pressure of about 12 mm. of water will be found most suitable for reproducing speech or music. Under this condition the jet is very sensitive to disturbances of all kinds, and will reproduce speech, music, and the irregular sounds classified as 'noises.'

It must be understood that the pressures here given are only suitable for jets of not too small diameter. When the diameter of the orifice is only a small fraction of a millimetre, the above limits may be much exceeded, since the velocity of efflux no longer depends solely on the pressure.

A jet of air escaping from a perfectly circular orifice does not vibrate spontaneously so as to emit a musical sound; but musical vibrations may be excited in it by the passage of the air on its way to the orifice through a resonant cavity, or through any irregular constriction.

An air-jet impinging on any obstacle, such as a flame, frequently vibrates spontaneously, if the obstacle is at sufficient distance and of such a nature as to diffuse the disturbances produced by impact, or throw them back on the orifice. This constitutes one of the chief objections to the use of a flame as a means of rendering audible the vibrations of a jet. The disturbances excited in the surrounding air by the impact of the stream upon it are so intense as easily to react on the orifice. When, therefore, the jet is thrown into any state of vibration, it tends to continue in the same state, even after the exciting sound has ceased.

A jet of air usually responds most energetically to some particular tone or set of related tones (Sondhauss). Such a particular tone may be called the jet fundamental. The practical inconvenience arising from this may be diminished by raising the air-pressure until the jet fundamental is higher than any of the tones to be reproduced.

When a flame and an air-jet meet at right angles, vibrations impressed upon the flame-orifice also yield sound. The conditions of pressure, etc., are somewhat different; but the changes produced at the orifice grow in the same way as those in an air-jet. The best results are obtained when a gentle current of air is directed from a wide tube just below the apex of the blue zone.

It is difficult, at first sight, to account for the fact that a vibrating jet gives rise to sound only when it strikes upon some object which divides it into two parts. The following experiments, however, in some sense explain this. The relative normal velocity at different points in the stream may be measured by introducing into its path the

open end of a capillary tube which is connected with a water manometer. This velocity diminishes continuously along the axis from the orifice to the breaking-point, and also diminishes continuously from any point of the axis outwards towards the circumference. Now, a sudden disturbance communicated to the air at the orifice will be found to produce a fall in velocity along the axis of the jet, but a rise in velocity along its extreme outer portions. It thus appears that the changes along the axis and along the circumference, produced by a disturbance, are of opposite character. When the jet plays into free air, these opposing changes neutralize each other in the main; but this interference is prevented when the jet strikes upon any object which serves to divide it.

When a vibrating air-jet plays against a small flame, the best sounds are heard when the stream strikes the flame just below the apex of the blue zone. At the plane of contact an intensely blue flame ring appears, and this ring vibrates visibly when the jet is disturbed. The production of sound from it doubtless depends on changes in the rate of combustion of the gas. This may be proved by inserting into the ring a fine slip of platinum, connected in circuit with a battery and a telephone (fig. 5). When the jet is thrown into vibration, the consequent variations in the temperature of the platinum affect its conductivity, and hence a feeble reproduction of the jet-vibration may be heard in the telephone.

To Savart we are mainly indebted for our knowledge of the sympathetic vibrations of liquid jets. This physicist showed that a liquid jet always tends to separate into drops at a distance from the orifice in a regular manner; and that this tendency is so well marked, that when the jet strikes upon any object, such as a stretched membrane, so arranged that the disturbances caused by impact may be conducted back to the orifice, a definite musical sound is produced. The pitch of the sound, or the number of drops separated in a given time, varies directly as the square root of the height of liquid in the reservoir, and inversely as the diameter of the orifice. Savart further showed that external vibrations impressed upon the orifice may act like the impact disturbances, and cause the jet to divide into drops. Impact on a stretched membrane may then cause the reproduction as sound of the impressed vibrations. The tones capable of producing this effect were considered to lie within the limits of an octavo below and a fifth above the jet normal.

The author has found, however, that jets of every mobile liquid are capable of responding to

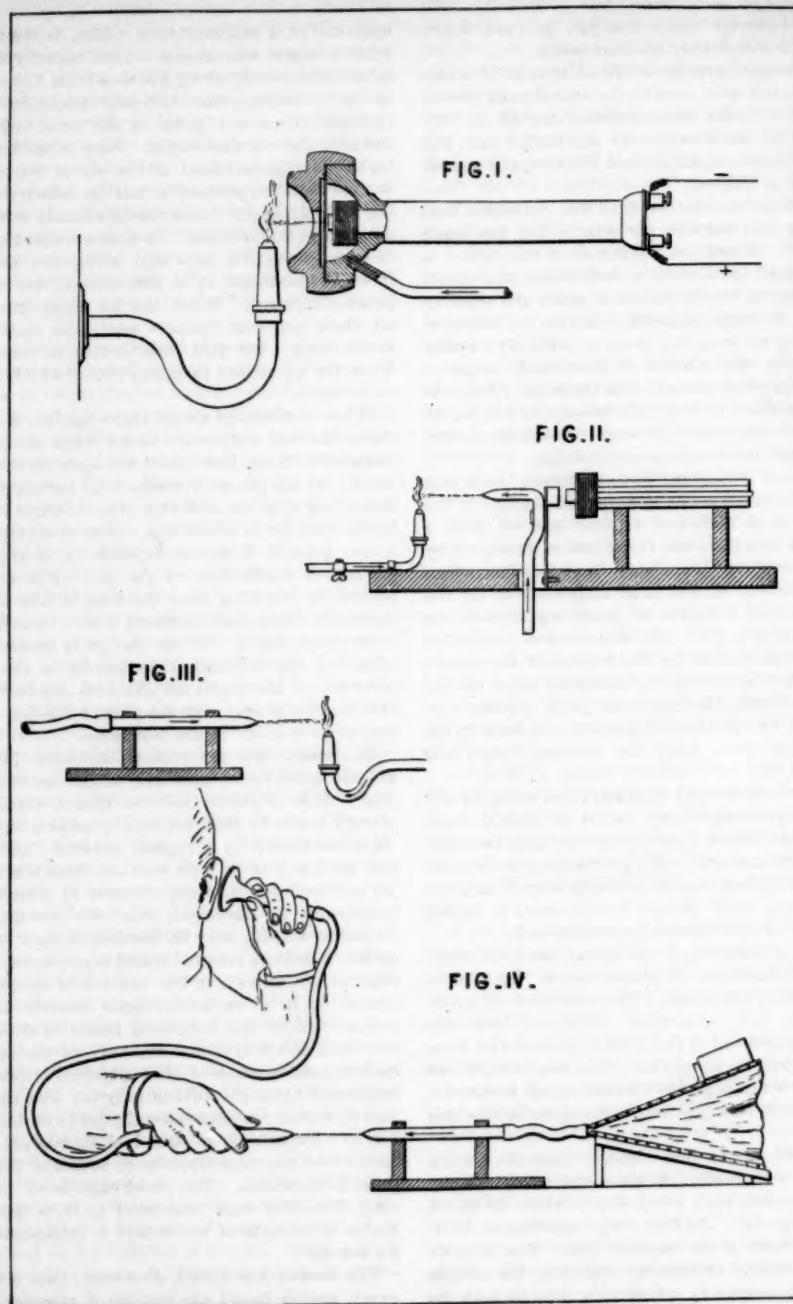


FIG. V.

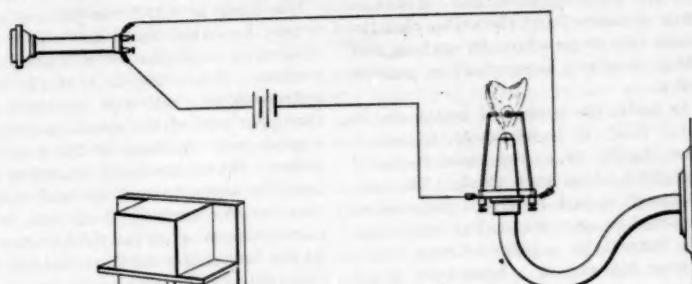


FIG. VI.

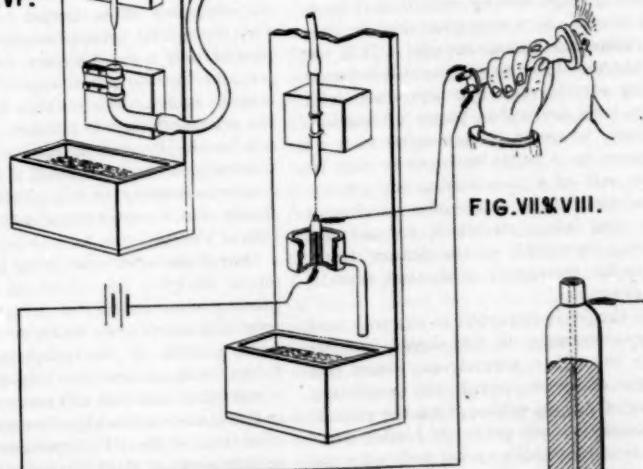
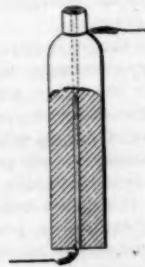


FIG. VII & VIII.



and reproducing all sounds whose pitch is below that of the jet normal, as well as some above ; and that the timbre or quality of the impressed vibrations is also preserved, provided that the jet is at such pressure as to be capable of readily responding to all the overtones which confer this quality.

Other essential conditions for perfect reproduction are, that the receiving-membrane should be placed at such distance from the orifice that the jet never breaks into drops above its surface, and that it should be insulated as carefully as possible from the orifice.

In order to assist the action of aerial sound-waves on the fluid, it is advisable to attach the jet - tube rigidly to a pine sound - board about three-eighths of an inch thick. The surfaces of the board should be free, otherwise it may be supported in any way. The receiving-membrane is formed by a piece of thin sheet-rubber tied over the end of a brass tube about three-eighths of an inch in internal diameter. A wide flexible hearing-tube furnished with an ear-piece is attached to the brass tube. The jet-tube is connected with an elevated reservoir by an india-rubber pipe (fig. 6).

With an apparatus of this kind, and a tolerably wide jet-tube having an orifice about 0.7 mm. in diameter, a pressure of about 15 decimetres of water is required to bring the jet into condition to respond to all the tones and overtones of the speaking voice (except hissing sounds) and those employed in music. At a somewhat higher pressure it will reproduce hissing sounds. It is not easy for an untrained ear to distinguish between the disturbing sounds and their reproduction by the jet, when both are within range of hearing. Vibrations may, however, be conveyed to a jet from a distance in a fairly satisfactory way by attaching one end of a thin cord to the jet-support, and the other to the centre of a parchment drum. The cord being stretched, an assistant may speak, sing, or whistle to the distant drum. Other devices for conveying vibrations from a distance are described.

Now, when the jet is disturbed in any way, and the receiving - membrane is introduced into its path close to the orifice, scarcely any sound can be heard in the ear-piece ; but, if the membrane be moved away from the orifice along the path of the jet, the sounds become gradually louder, until at a certain distance (which varies both with the character of the orifice and the intensity of the impressed vibrations) a position of maximum purity and loudness is reached. At greater distances the reproduction by the jet becomes at first rattling and harsh, and finally unintelligible.

In the latter case the jet will be seen to break above the membrane.

From this experiment we may draw the conclusions previously arrived at for air-jets ; viz., that all changes produced by sound at the orifice grow in accordance with the same law ; and that all changes travel with the same velocity, which is probably the mean velocity of the stream.

The mode in which the jet acts upon the membrane becomes apparent when instantaneous shadow-photographs of vibrating jets are examined. When the jet is steady, and the orifice strictly circular and well insulated, the outline in the upper part of the stream is that of a slightly conical rod, the base of the cone being at the orifice. When, however, vibrations are impressed upon the support, swellings and constrictions appear on the surface of the rod, which become more pronounced as the fluid travels downwards. At the breaking-point the constrictions give way, those due to the more energetic sound-impulses being the first to break. When the impressed vibrations are complex, the outline of the jet may be very complicated. When the membrane is interposed, we have then a constantly changing mass of liquid hurled against it, and vibratory movements are therefore excited in it, proportional to the varying cross-section of the jet at its surface.

It would appear at first sight that the mode of growth of the vibratory changes in a liquid jet must be different from that which characterizes the vibrations of an air-jet. It is possible, however, by special arrangements, to receive the impact of only a small section of a vibrating liquid jet, and thus to get a reproduction of its vibrations as sound. We are thus led to conclude that the sound-effects of a vibrating liquid jet may not be simply due to its varying cross-section, since actual changes occur in the translation- or rotation - velocity of its particles. Experiment shows that these changes are greatest along the axis of the jet.

One of the most interesting and beautiful methods of studying the vibrations of a jet consists in placing some portion of it in circuit with a battery and telephone, whereby its vibrations become audible in the telephone. A number of forms of apparatus for this purpose have been constructed, but one will serve as a type. Savart, in the course of his experiments, showed that the vibrations of the jet are preserved in the 'nappe,' or thin sheet of fluid formed when the jet strikes normally on a small surface. So far, then, as vibratory changes are concerned, the nappe has all the properties of the main stream. Although the diameter of this excessively thin film is about the same whatever be the distance of the surface

from the orifice, the intensity of the vibratory changes propagated to it varies with this distance, as for the jet itself. It is simply necessary, then, to insert into the nappe two platinum electrodes in circuit with a telephone and a battery having an electromotive force of from twelve to thirty volts, to get an accurate and faithful reproduction of the jet-vibrations. Loud sounds can thus be obtained from a jet which is finer than the finest needle, and the arrangement constitutes a highly sensitive 'transmitter' (figs. 7 and 8).

A jet-transmitter, in its simplest form, consists essentially of a glass jet-tube which is rigidly attached to a sound-board, and supplied from an elevated reservoir containing some conducting-liquid (distilled water acidified with one three-hundredth of its volume of pure sulphuric acid is the best), and a couple of platinum electrodes embedded in an insulator, such as ebonite, against which the jet strikes. The jet may issue from a circular orifice, about 0.25 mm. in diameter, in the blunt and thin-sided end of a small glass tube. Much smaller jets may be used, but, for one of the given size, the pressure required for distinct transmission of all kinds of sounds will not exceed thirty inches. The receiving-surface is the rounded end of an ebonite rod, through the centre of which passes a platinum wire. The upper end of the rod should be about 1 mm. in diameter, and should be surrounded by a little tube of platinum; and the end of the central wire and the upper margin of the tube should form a continuous slightly convex surface with the ebonite, free from irregularities. The inner and outer platinum electrodes are joined respectively to the terminals of the circuit. The jet is allowed to strike on the end of the central wire, and, thence radiating in the form of a nappe, comes into contact with the tube, thus completing the circuit. The dimensions of the apparatus may be varied to suit jets of different sizes; it is highly desirable, however, that the jet nappe should well overlap the inner margin of the ring-shaped electrode.

With small jets the impact disturbances are so feeble, that slight precautions are necessary to insulate the receiving-surface from the orifice, unless the former is placed low down in the path. The strength of battery may be increased until the escape of electrolytic gas-bubbles causes a faint hissing noise in the telephone. The liquid, on its way to the jet, should pass downwards through a wide tube lightly packed with coarse clean cotton, by which minute air-bubbles which violently disturb the jet, and small particles of dust which might obstruct the orifice, are stopped. This tube should never be allowed to empty itself.

Experiments are given to show that in this instrument the jet may act upon the electric current in two ways: first, by interposing a constantly changing liquid resistance between the electrodes; and, second, by causing changes in the so-called 'polarization' of the electrodes. In one form of instrument, namely, that in which both jet and electrodes are entirely immersed in a mass of liquid of the same kind as the jet liquid, the action must be entirely at the surface of the electrodes.

In the latter case a liquid jet becomes similar in structure and properties to a jet of air in air, and the velocity at different points when it is steady and when it is disturbed varies in precisely the manner already described.

The author briefly passed in review the leading facts to be accounted for, and laid stress upon the parallelism of the properties of gaseous and liquid jets. Some shadow-photographs of vibrating smoke jets have shown that these also present drop-like swellings and contractions which grow along the jet-path. The most satisfactory explanation of the phenomena will then be one which refers the vibratory changes in jets of both kinds to the same origin.

The beautiful and well-known experiments of Plateau have supplied a satisfactory explanation of the normal vibrations of a liquid jet in air. He has shown that a stationary liquid cylinder, whose length exceeds a certain multiple of its diameter, must break up, under the influence of the 'forces of figure,' into shorter cylinders of definite length, which, when liberated, tend to contract into drops. Now, the jet being regarded as such a stationary cylinder, we have a satisfactory explanation of the musical tone resulting when its discontinuous part strikes upon a stretched membrane, and when the impact disturbances may be in any way conducted back to the orifice. These disturbances then accelerate the division of the jet after it leaves the orifice. Plateau endeavored to show that division of the jet might take place at other than the normal points, thus explaining Savart's conclusion that a jet can vibrate in sympathy with a limited range of tones. Lord Rayleigh, moreover, has recently shown that the inferior limit of this range is not so sharply defined theoretically as Savart's experiments would prove it to be.

Both Savart and Magnus, however, describe experiments in which a water-jet, carefully protected from impact and other disturbances, does not exhibit the peculiar appearances characteristic of rhythmical division; and the author's experiments conclusively prove that this rhythmical division does not take place in a well-insulated jet. While the tendency so to divide may therefore be admitted, and the normal rate of vibration of the jet

and its greater sensitiveness to particular tones may thereby be explained, Plateau's theory cannot be held to account for the uniform growth, along the jet-path, of all changes, however complex their form; for this growth takes place independently of the 'forces of figure,' and under conditions in which they are entirely absent, as when a gaseous or liquid jet plays within a mass of fluid of its own kind.

The author is inclined, rather, to refer the properties of jets of all kinds to conditions of motion on which hitherto little stress has been laid; viz., the unequal velocities at different points in the stream after it has left the orifice. From the axis towards the circumference of a jet near the orifice, the velocity diminishes continuously, and the motions of the stream may be regarded as resultants of the motions of an infinite series of parallel and co-axial vortex-rings. In many respects, in fact, the appearance of a jet resembles the appearance of a vortex-ring projected from the same orifice. Thus a jet from a circular orifice, like a vortex-ring from a round aperture, remains always circular. In a frictionless fluid a vortex-ring, uninfluenced by other vortices, would remain of constant diameter, — a condition to which a horizontal liquid jet approximates. When, however, the ring moves through a viscous fluid, it experiences retardation and expansion, which are precisely the changes which a jet playing in a fluid of its own kind undergoes. The vibrating smoke-ring projected from an elliptical aperture changes its form in exactly the same manner as a jet, at sufficiently low pressure, from an elliptical orifice. These analogies might be considerably extended.

In a liquid jet in air or in a vacuum, internal friction must gradually equalize the velocities. At a distance from the orifice, therefore, depending on the viscosity of the liquid, such a jet must approach the condition of a cylinder at rest, and must tend to divide in accordance with Plateau's law. The rapidity with which drops are formed depends mainly on the superficial tension of the liquid. The length of the continuous column should therefore bear some inverse ratio to the viscosity and superficial tension of the liquid, — a view which is in harmony with the results of Savart's experiments, and some of the author's, in this direction.

Where the jet plays into a fluid of its own kind, the retardation and expansion which it experiences are mainly due to its parting with its energy to the surrounding medium. When, as a result of vibration, growing swellings and contractions are formed in it, this loss must be more rapid; and the jet therefore shows a diminution of mean

velocity along the axis, which increases with the distance from the orifice.

Such being the conditions, it is evident that any impulse communicated to the fluid, either behind or external to the orifice, or to the orifice itself, must alter the vorticity of the stream. That vortex-rings are generated by impulses of the first kind is well known; the action when the orifice is moved is intelligible, if we consider that a forward motion of it will produce acceleration, a backward motion retardation, of the outer layers of the jet. As the result of a rapid to-and-fro motion, we may then imagine two vortex-rings to be developed; the foremost layer of greater energy, and moving more slowly, than the hindmost. These two rings, in their onward course, will then act on each other in a known manner: the first will grow in size and energy at the expense of the second, at the same time diminishing in velocity; the second will contract while its velocity increases. The inequalities in cross-section, initiated at the orifice, thus tend to grow along the jet-path, and will be attended also by growing inequalities of the normal and rotational velocities of the particles. Since the stream-lines of a vortex-ring are crowded together at its centre, the disturbances produced by impact of the jet-rings will be greatest along the axis, and least along the circumference.

Indeed, the sound disturbances produced by impact of a common vortex-ring are quite analogous to those of a vibrating jet. Let an air-ring be projected into a trumpet-shaped tube connected with the ear, and little more than a rushing noise will result; but let it be projected against a small orifice in the bearing tube, and a sharp click will be heard at the moment of impact. This click is loud when the centre of the ring strikes the tube, but faint, although still of the same character, when produced from the circumference.

The foregoing considerations may be extended to cases in which the motions of the orifice are complex vibrations. Expansions and contractions are then initiated in the fluid proportional at every point to the velocity of the orifice. The inequalities must tend to further diverge in the manner described.

Similar considerations apply to cases in which the motions of the orifice are the result of lateral impulses. In these cases the rings formed in the jet will not be perpendicular to its direction, and in their onward course may possibly vibrate about a mean position.

The author further pointed out how the viscosity and surface-tension of the fluid may influence its sensitiveness. When the surface-tension is very high, as in mercury, it produces a tendency in the

jet to break easily under the influence of moderate impulses.

The foregoing is little more than the outlines of a new theory of jet-vibrations. The author hopes to supply in the future further experimental evidence in support of it.

BOSTON LETTER.

EVIDENTLY one should join the Essex institute in Salem if one wishes to live to a green old age. This well-honored scientific body held its annual meeting recently; and the secretary's report showed, that, of the 24 deaths during the year, all but one were of persons over fifty years of age. Moreover, of the 324 living members, two-thirds are over threescore years and ten, and seven are past fourscore. The institute is soon to go into new quarters.

Preparations are making for the celebration at Cambridge of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of Harvard college. It will not take place at the commencement season, but at some time the following autumn, and it seems to be generally understood that Hon. James Russell Lowell will preside. It will be a different thing from the bicentenary, when a smaller audience-room than is now available permitted even all the undergraduates to find a place. The living Harvard alumni alone are probably three times the number living fifty years ago, and certainly the undergraduates are five times as numerous as then. This event makes specially appropriate the list just published by the university, showing the literary activity of its officers during the last five years. A similar ten-years list was published in 1880; but the present, though only for half that time, not only contains a longer list of publications than the former, but a somewhat larger number of writers among the officers.

Gifts continue to come in to the university. Mrs. Draper of New York continues to further the researches to which the late Dr. Henry Draper devoted his life. Her latest gift is of a thousand dollars to Harvard college observatory, to be expended under the direction of Professor Pickering in prosecuting researches in the photography of stellar spectra; the eleven-inch photographic lens constructed by Dr. Draper will be employed in this work, and those who heard Professor Pickering's account, at the Albany meeting of the National academy last autumn, of his own work in the field in which Dr. Draper's name is so honorably associated, will believe that Mrs. Draper has made an excellent choice.

In this same connection it should be mentioned that the contest at law about the Paine bequest to

the Harvard observatory, mention of which has before been made in this correspondence, is happily closed by amicable settlement between the parties concerned. The amount which will now be turned over to the observatory, probably within the next month or two, will scarcely differ from that previously announced, and on the death of the widow it is probable that the entire bequest will exceed three hundred thousand dollars. Those who have followed the telling activity of the observatory under its present management will be confident that no other institution could make better use of such a noble gift.

At the annual meeting of the American academy, May 25, it was voted to present the Rumford gold and silver medal to Professor Langley of the Allegheny observatory, for his researches in radiant energy. Thus Professor Langley has in a single year borne off the two principal gold medals given for scientific work in America, having received the Draper medal of the National academy only last month. No one will dispute his right to them. The Rumford fund will also be used this year by the American academy in aid of researches upon the solar corona at the time of the total eclipse of August next, five hundred dollars having been appropriated in aid of Mr. W. H. Pickering's expedition to the West Indies. A letter was read from Mr. Greenough the sculptor, a fellow of the academy, announcing his gift to the academy of a portrait of Galileo, which he stated was either an old copy or a replica of the portrait in the Pitti palace. The portrait is already on its way to America.

In passing through Mount Auburn cemetery the other day I observed for the first time the monument which has been erected at the grave of Pourtales, the colleague of Agassiz, and the pioneer in the zoölogy of the deep seas. It is a simple but massive semicircular slab of very fine-grained sandstone, on one face of which is the usual inscription, while on the other, facing the grave, has been deeply engraved a conventionalized Pecten-like sea-shell, forming a sort of niche; and on the surface of this are neatly sculptured in bas-relief a coral, a Comatula, a Gorgonia, and a magnified foraminifer, emblematic of the subjects of his study.

The topographical field-parties of the U. S. geological survey have begun their season's operations in this state, and before next winter most of the field-work will have been finished. The Appalachian mountain club, taking advantage of the work already completed, is about to issue, by permission of the survey, a photolithograph of a portion of the field-sheets on the original scale, comprising the extreme north-western corner of

the state, with Greylock, our highest mountain mass. Contours will be shown twenty feet apart, and bring out in fine relief the bolder slopes of this part of the state.

Y.
Boston, June 1.

NOTES AND NEWS.

THE Imperial university of Japan (Teikoku-Daigaku), founded by imperial decree of March 1, 1886, includes the two institutions formerly known as the Tōkyō university (Tōkyō Daigaku) and the Imperial college of engineering (Kobu-Daigakko), these institutions having ceased to exist. The university comprises five colleges, each with its own director; and at its head is the president, Hiromoto Watanabe. The secretary is Kiuichiro Nagai. The directors of the different colleges are: College of law (Hōka-Daigaku), the president (*ex officio*); College of medicine (Ika-Daigaku), Prof. Hiizu Miyake; College of engineering (Kōka-Daigaku), (acting) Prof. Dairoku Kikuchi, M.A. (Cantab.); College of literature (Bunka-Daigaku), Prof. Masakazu Toyama; College of science (Rika-Daigaku), Prof. Dairoku Kikuchi, M.A. (Cantab.). All communications to the Imperial university, whether on its own behalf or as the representative of the two above-mentioned institutions now defunct, should be addressed to the president; communications to the colleges, to the director of each college.

— Dr. Charles Upham Shepard, well known for his collections in mineralogy, died at Charleston, May 1. For a considerable portion of his life he was identified with the South Carolina medical college, and aided greatly in giving that institution an honorable standing. He was also connected with Amherst college; and to this college he gave his vast collection of minerals, which was unfortunately destroyed in 1880.

— A note from Dr. Hyde of Honolulu, to the *Missionary herald* for June, reports that "news has just come that on March 6 the bottom fell out of the volcano, and that Kilauea is now only a black hole in the ground; no lava, no fire, to be seen. But such phenomena have been seen before; and the wonderful crater may fill up again, and be active once more. There were forty-nine earthquakes on the island of Hawaii at the time, and probably some new vent opened for the subterranean fires."

— The house committee on commerce has reported favorably the bill providing for an expert commission to visit Mexico, Brazil, Cuba, and the Central American states for the purpose of investigating the merits of the methods pursued by

Drs. Freire and Carmona for the prevention of yellow-fever by inoculation. In their report the committee say, "Dr. Carmona states, that in one series of observations during the prevalence of yellow-fever, of three hundred and eighty persons protected by inoculation, less than three per cent contracted the disease; while under the same circumstances, of one hundred and seventy-five persons not inoculated, thirty-two per cent were seized with it. He also states that seventy-six inoculated soldiers marching from Vera Cruz to Acayucan were joined by a soldier who had not been inoculated. Upon their arrival at the latter place, the unprotected soldier was seized with yellow-fever, and died, while no case of the disease occurred among his seventy-six comrades. Other facts of a similar character are related by Drs. Carmona and Freire, which certainly tend very strongly to show the success of this preventive treatment. It is therefore important that further scientific observations and experiments should be instituted in order to establish beyond controversy the facts relating to this subject, so vital to the interests of sanitary science, commerce, and humanity."

— The following assignments have been made in the topographical department of the geological survey: Mr. Mark Kerr is in Oregon; Prof. A. H. Thompson is in charge of the western division, with headquarters at San Francisco; Mr. Renshaw will be sent to Kansas and Missouri this week; and Mr. Richard Goode will go to Texas.

— The announcement of the death of Von Ranke was succeeded by that of George Waitz, one of his most painstaking and industrious pupils. Professor Waitz was born at Flensburg in 1813. He became professor of history at the University of Kiel in 1842, in 1848 he was a member of the Frankfort assembly, and in 1849 he was called to Göttingen. Waitz succeeded Pertz as editor of the 'Monumenta Germaniae historica,' and in connection with this work he has achieved a considerable reputation. His most important writings are, 'Deutsche verfassungs-geschichte' (2d ed., 1865, 4 vols.), 'Schleswig-Holstein geschichte' (1851-54, 2 vols.), 'Grundzüge der politik' (1862), and 'Die formeln der deutschen königs- und der römischen kaiserkrönung vom 10 bis zum 10 jahrhundert.' Of late years Professor Waitz has resided in Berlin.

— Pending the action of the appropriation committee, no instructions can be issued by the coast survey to continue work after June 30. As soon as the appropriations are available, preparations will be made to organize parties for field-work after July 1.

— Mr. R. M. Bache has been ordered by the coast survey to continue the topographical work on the south-east shore of Staten Island, and on the south side of Raritan Bay towards Sandy Hook; Mr. F. W. Perkins is daily expected from his field-operations on the coast of Louisiana.

— Velhagen & Klasing (Leipzig) have begun the publication, in twelve monthly parts, of a new edition of Andree's 'Allgemeiner handatlas.' It will contain a hundred and twenty maps.

— The following works of interest to scientific readers have been lately announced: 'Earthquakes and other earth movements,' by John Milne (New York, *Appleton*); 'A manual of mechanics,' by T. M. Gordon (New York, *Appleton*); a work on the labor question in America, by Professor Ely (New York, *Crowell*); 'Photo-engraving processes,' by A. F. W. Leslie (New York, *Fuchs & Lang*); 'The flow of water through pipes and open conduits and from weirs and orifices,' by H. Smith, jun. (London, *Trübner*); 'The world as will and idea,' vols. ii. and iii., by A. Schopenhauer, tr. by R. B. Haldane and J. Kemp (London, *Trübner*); 'The Indian empire: its history, people, and products,' by W. W. Hunter (London, *Trübner*).

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

* Correspondents are requested to be as brief as possible. The writer's name is in all cases required as proof of good faith.

A national zoological garden.

In 1870 an act of incorporation was passed, establishing a zoological society in Washington; but during the last sixteen years little or nothing has been done towards carrying out what the charter of this society provides for, or taking any steps in the direction of putting into effect the chief objects such an organization would have in view.

We learn from *Science* (vii. No. 160) that the public-spirited and venerable exhibiter of animals, Mr. P. T. Barnum, now comes forward and says, that, if congress will grant him thirty acres of the reclaimed flats on the Washington side of the Potomac River, he will expend the generous sum of two hundred thousand dollars in starting a national zoological garden.

Now, the eastern extension of these flats is not far from the Smithsonian grounds, and, taking every thing else into consideration, there is probably not a better site in this country for this particular purpose. The incalculable advantages that would be the outcome of such an establishment can be easily appreciated; and it is only to be hoped that at an early day congress will take Mr. Barnum's proposition into favorable consideration.

Few institutions in any country afford better educational advantages than a large, well-kept, and well-managed zoological garden. No better proof of this can be brought forward than the report of Mr. P. L. Sclater, F.R.S., secretary of the Zoological society of London, for the year ending 1885. Mr. Sclater tells us that during the year quoted, 659,896 persons visited the gardens, and that the receipts of

the society amounted to the extraordinary sum of £25,809 10s 1d; while during the previous year 745,460 persons visited the gardens, and the receipts were proportionately greater; in fact, £3,129 more.

Many of the larger animals in this country are now rapidly disappearing from off the face of the earth,—notably the bison, the elk, and moose,—while numbers of the smaller representatives of our splendid mammalian and avi-fauna are unfamiliar to the eyes of the vast majority of the people of this country, from the simple fact that we are so poor in institutions where the living specimens can be put on exhibition.

Mr. F. W. True, curator of the department of mammals in the Smithsonian institution, points out in *Science* (vii. No. 171) another deplorable neglect, which unfortunately we are likewise guilty of, and which the establishment of a zoological society in Washington would do much towards rectifying. With the disappearance of our larger animals and other vertebrates, the opportunities are forever being placed beyond our reach, to intimately know about the anatomical structure of these very forms. In regard to this, anatomists are too apt to say something like this: "Oh, yes! a prairie dog; no doubt its organization is very much like the squirrel's, and will not repay exhaustive examination." Now, I say that these related and interrelated types are the very ones that will repay the most exhaustive research.

A competent prosector attached to our zoological garden—one who combined the qualities of an artist, an author, and a general anatomist—would soon demonstrate the high importance of his work, and contribute the most efficient aid to animal taxonomy. The brilliant productions of Garrod and Forbes, in the *Proceedings of the Zoological society of London*, speak volumes in favor of this advantage.

A share of the pecuniary receipts that would accrue from such an establishment could be set aside to meet the expenses following the publication of handsomely illustrated memoirs, giving large colored plates of the rarer acquisitions to the gardens, and the investigations of the prosector into the structure of such animals as died from time to time, and thus fell into his hands. We have long felt, in this country, the need of just some such standard publication as the excellently conducted *Proceedings of the Zoological society of London*; and this would certainly be realized, and follow as one of the natural results pending the establishment of our national zoological garden.

R. W. SHUFELDT.

Fort Wingate, N. Mex., May 26.

Scent-organs in some bombycid moths.

At intervals during the past year or two, isolated observations have been made of peculiar filamentary processes protruding from the abdomen of the male of some of our common bombycids, *Leucarcia acraea* and *Scoparia fulvicolis* being the observed species. Not long since, I described a peculiar abdominal character in the male of *Cosmosoma omphale*; and the recent capture and examination of specimens of *Leucarcia acraea* has enabled me to add something to the knowledge of the structure in that species. Between the seventh and eighth ventral segments is a narrow opening, entirely invisible in the dried insect, but readily discerned on a

slight pressure of the abdomen in the fresh specimen. This opening extends back about an eighth of an inch, and, on being carefully pried open, shows two closely folded tufts of fine blackish hair. Pressure upon the abdomen will generally force out these tufts, and, if rightly applied, will result in the extension of two orange tentacle like structures, fully half an inch in length, united at the base, and spreading backward and outwardly in a gentle curve. The tufts of hair diminish as the tentacles are extended, the individual hairs occupying small but distinct papillae on the sides, until, when fully extended, they are evenly distributed around them, and no trace of the brush-like tuft remains. If the pressure be removed, the tentacles contract, the hairs again forming a tuft.

Specimens of *Pyrrhactia isabella*, when closely examined, showed a similar abdominal structure; but here there were four tufts extended instead of two, and in color they were snow-white. Properly applied pressure resulted in the inflation, first, of two basal sacs, which, when fully dilated, could be compared to nothing better than the ends of two thumbs pointing in opposite directions, the hairs of two of the tufts arranged rather densely on the convex outer surface. From the middle of the lower edge of these sacs there extended two tentacles similar to those in *acraea*, but not so long; and instead of being evenly clothed with hair, in this species the lower portion only has the papillae and hairy surface. The sacs and tentacles here are whitish, instead of orange, as in *acraea*. The processes of the latter species have a most remarkable resemblance to the tentacles of the larva of the common *Papilio asterias*, both in color and in shape. In both species an intense odor, somewhat like the smell of laudanum, is apparent when first the tentacles are exposed; and there is no reasonable doubt but that they are odor-glands, though exactly what purpose they serve is not so clear. In closely allied species no trace of this structure has been detected. Several fresh specimens of *Arctia*, *Spilosoma virginica*, and *Hyphantria textor* showed no trace of it; and no dry specimens of any other species thus far examined have a similar structure.

JOHN B. SMITH,
Assistant curator.

U. S. national museum.
Washington, D.C., May 28.

Muscles of the hind-limb of *Cheiromeles torquatus*.

I desire to place on record some observations I have recently made on the muscles of the hind-limb of *Cheiromeles torquatus*. This bat is one of the most interesting of the *Cheiromyota*. It is to a great extent arboreal in its habits. The wings are small, the body heavy and uncouth, and the wing-membranes are so arranged as to accommodate the young within a pouch on the back instead of on the front of the chest, as is the case in most of the bats. As a consequence, I expected to find in the musculature of the hind-limbs structures recalling those of other orders of mammals rather than those of the bats generally. In the main these anticipations have been met. It has always been supposed that the popliteus, the biceps, the soleus, and plantaris muscles are absent in the bats. It is true that Macalister finds in *Vampyrote* a few oblique fibres 'like

a rudimentary popliteus,' and Humphry identifies a small fascicle in *Pteropus* as biceps; but with these exceptions, as Macalister says, 'there is no trace of biceps, popliteus, soleus, or plantaris in any.' There is no doubt that the popliteus, the biceps, and the plantaris are present in *Cheiromeles*. The soleus is the only one of the absentees which is unaccounted for.

The maintenance of this group of muscles in a bat which is specialized for a tree-life, and scurries about the trunk after a fashion much like that of *Pteromys*, suggests the conclusion that the muscles named (excepting the soleus) are essential to the simplest expression of a true act of walking. They are absent in the volant bats, since they are of no use in flight; but they at once re-appear when the limbs are used for walking, or for the movements which are similar to this act. The assumption here taken that *Cheiromeles* is a true bat, which has been specially modified from the typical bat, is, I believe, tenable, and need not be here discussed. Occasion will be taken in due time to present arguments to sustain it. I will be content now to record the existence of the muscles named, and to give brief descriptions of them.

The popliteus is a well-defined muscle which slightly overlies the origin of the tibialis posticus. It does not create an oblique line on the tibia, which is characteristic of the muscle in the mammals generally.

The plantaris is a conspicuous muscle, and is larger and heavier than is the gastrocnemius. It is distinct from the gastrocnemius its entire length. The muscle passes down to the sole of the foot, where it is continuous with the plantar fascia. Traction on the muscle flexes and abducts the foot.

A single muscular mass attached to the ischium represents the semi-membranosus and the biceps. The biceps becomes free at the upper fourth of the thigh, and is inserted into the head of the fibula.

The muscle which represents the tibialis posticus and flexor longus digitorum arises from the upper part of both the tibia and the fibula. It remains fleshy until it reaches the neighborhood of the tarsus, when two distinct tendons appear. One of these may be said to represent the flexor longus digitorum. It passes superficially over the ankle, and is lost on the plantar surface. Traction on the tendon abducts the foot, but does not flex the toes. The tendon of the tibialis anticus is lost on the tarsus. Traction on this muscle exerts no apparent influence on the movements of the tarsus.

HARRISON ALLEN.

Philadelphia, May 25.

Double vision.

In your issue of May 14, p. 440, Mr. Keller describes some phenomena of binocular vision, and asks an explanation. It would be impossible to do this in a short communication, but he will find the subject explained in any work on binocular vision. Perhaps the most accessible to him is my own little volume, entitled 'Sight' (International scientific series, vol. xxxi.). For explanation of phantom images, I would refer him to the chapters on 'Single and double images,' and on 'Superposition of external images,' and especially to the diagram on p. 116; and for explanation of inequalities of surface of such images, to p. 141 and preceding pages.

JOSEPH LECONTE.

Berkeley, Cal., May 24.

